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ABSTRACT

This Notebook has been prepared as a guide to resources on several topics related to the improvement of teaching and the renewal of colleges and universities. Topics are: general resources; teaching; learning and students; course development; curriculum development; advising; faculty development; administrative development; faculty evaluation; and institutional change. Each section begins with a bibliographic essay that provides a perspective on the topic, and points to some of the literature in the area. A second part is an annotated bibliography of several important works. The third section is a more general bibliography. The major purpose of this guide is to point the general reader to a limited number of useful items. The names of individuals who assembled, organized, and described the material appear on each section. (Author/KE)

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PROJECT ON
INSTITUTIONAL RENEWAL
THROUGH THE
IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHING

1818 R STREET, N.W. · WASHINGTON, D. C. 20009

RESOURCE NOTEBOOK

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH
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NE 008 372

RESOURCE NOTEBOOK

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Sponsored by the Society for Values in Higher Education and supported by a grant from the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education.

June 1976

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INTRODUCTION

by
Jerry G. Gaff

Rationale

This Notebook has been prepared as a guide to resources on several topics related to the improvement of teaching and the renewal of colleges and universities. The major impetus for it came from persons at the 16 institutions which are participating in this three-year Project on Institutional Renewal through the Improvement of Teaching.

The need for resource information was apparent early in the Project, because most persons working at participating institutions were not experienced with this kind of enterprise. They asked, for example, about what is effective teaching, what others are doing to improve it, and what are the benefits and pitfalls of such efforts. The interests of the teams at the various schools converged upon a few topics which have become major sections of this Notebook. They are general resources, teaching, students and learning, course and curriculum development, advising, faculty and administrative development, faculty evaluation, and institutional change. These topics reflect pragmatic needs of individuals and teams in specific areas as they plan and implement changes at their institutions.

It was decided that the most efficient way to help participants in the Project acquire new information, broaden perspectives, and discover strengths and weaknesses of alternative approaches was by means of the written word. It often comes as a surprise to faculty members to learn that there is a professional literature on higher education; most do not learn about this body of knowledge as a result of their graduate training nor through their disciplinary associations. But it <u>does</u> exist, and much of it is available on most college and university campuses. For these reasons, the major portion of this Notebook consists of a guide to published materials. An emphasis has been placed on those that are commonly available on college campuses or that can be fairly easily obtained; unpublished documents, though often valuable, have thus been minimized in this sourcebook.

The notebook format was chosen as a means of organizing the material to emphasize the open-ended nature of the undertaking. Additional pages or even whole sections may be added, and other material such as articles, speeches, or notes may be included as one desires. It is intended to be a useful starting point for inquiry and planning rather than an encyclopedia of completed work.

Each section begins with a bibliographic essay that provides a perspective on the topic, makes several useful distinctions, raises a few key issues, identifies major trends, or points to some of the literature in the area. A second part is an annotated bibliography of several important works. For the most part, the annotations are short, state the major thesis of the item, indicate its scope, and specify distinctive aspects. The third part of each section is a more general bibliography.

It is obvious that each section can deal with only a small portion of the published literature. Many valuable resources have been omitted. Indeed, the major purpose of this guide is to point the general reader to a limited number of useful items. Since selection is such a central feature, the principles that have been used in making the selections ought to be detailed. First, a preference for works that are written in non-technical language prevails; jargon, sophisticated methodology, and complex statistical analyses have been avoided in so far as possible. Second, a few items that give a cogent broad overview of each topic are highlighted. Third, wide coverage of each topic has been achieved by including only a few items on any of the specialized sub-topics in each area. Finally, since the central concern of the Project is for facilitating actual changes, some items that have practical implications have been included.

There are a variety of points of view represented in the series of short essays. These are intended not to be definitive statements, but rather suggestive of current issues, ideas, opinions, and controversies within the various topics of concern. It is hoped that each essay will provoke thought, encourage reading, and stimulate discussion. There is some overlap in the various bibliographies simply because the topics are not as mutually exclusive as the categories might imply.

On the contrary, they are all systemically related to one another, and such interrelationships need to be recognized.

The names of the individuals who assembled, organized, and described the material appear on each section. But note should be made of how they came to be involved and what they did to make this Notebook possible. Susan Wittig assisted on the original planning during the winter. The work on the sections lagged, and it looked like this project might have to be abandoned. Conrad Festa, a Project team member from the English Department at Old Dominion University, helped to revitalize the Notebook idea in mid-May, and he assumed responsibility for writing several sections. He has since been named the director of his university's new Faculty Development Center. He secured the aid of a few graduate students who reviewed the literature, and he enlisted the assistance of two of his faculty colleagues to help write some essays. Sally Gaff, who within the year has worked on higher education projects of the Danforth Foundation and the California State Assembly and the Educational Testing Service, agreed to prepare three sections and to coordinate the entire enterprise, a task that proved to be formidable. Although the press of time precluded each of these persons from doing a more exhaustive and thorough search of the literature, their work should be of assistance to others interested in these topics.

The Notebook has been reviewed by knowledgeable "experts" before taking its final form. Drafts of most sections have been examined by specialists in the area to identify any serious sins of omission or commission and to obtain another perspective about the judgments made concerning the items mentioned. Names of experts were solicited from the Advisory Committee of the Project and from NEXUS, the information referral service operated by the American Association of Higher Education.

Although knowledge of the written word may be helpful, other resources are also important, and a portion of the first section deals with programs and people. Several other projects which, like this one, seek to facilitate changes in a group of institutions, are briefly described. Additionally, a short list of teaching improvement centers

or programs has been compiled, so that contact may be made with some of them, if desired. Finally, the members of the Advisory Committee of the Project are also listed in section I.

The Project Perspective

The Notebook has a point of view which reflects the original proposal for the Project about the current state of education and about directions for improvement. That paper asserts that a faculty member learns the art and continues the practice of teaching in relative solitude. Seldom do teachers have an established forum for inquiry, experimentation, and collaboration that may help them to become consciously aware of their teaching and find ways to improve. Systematic research done on teaching and learning has tended to stay within the provinces of specialists in education, failing to inform the work of the typical faculty member.

The matter of improving college and university teaching transcends individual faculty members and encompasses institutional, even societal, factors as well. Colleges and universities frequently fail to hire, pay, promote, or tenure faculty members on the basis of their teaching effectiveness; teaching quality is often not assessed in a fashion that inspires the confidence of faculty members or administrators; and vigorous and informed debates among professional colleagues about their students or instruction are not a regular part of the academic culture.

These perennial constraints on improved teaching are exacerbated by several present circumstances affecting higher learning which were detailed in the proposal. They include:

The steady state, even active retrenchment, of institutions has tended to divert faculty interest from exploration of innovative teaching to the security and rewards of conventional professional patterns.

New student populations with more diverse backgrounds challenge values and styles of teaching that were more appropriate to previous, more uniform student clienteles.

Colleges facing competition for survival by reclaiming themselves as good teaching institutions require qualitative reappraisal of teaching responsive to new social needs.

The "new vocationalism" of students presses teachers to rethink their disciplinary commitments in light of the social need for integrating wisdom and knowledge.

The "new consumer consciousness" of students and their parents tends to freeze educational transactions and evaluations, though teachers could utilize this awareness to foster responsible accountability.

Faculty unions may lead to contractual circumscription of the practice of teaching, but could also become a force for collective reappraisal of teaching.

Yet, today there are growing indications that these current forces are leading both individual faculty members and institutions to give greater attention to teaching, particularly of undergraduates. The era of limited growth is leading to a reassessment of priorities, and teaching emerges as a central value. The broader range of students, that is increasingly characteristic of individual courses and whole schools, makes it necessary to search for new modes of instruction. And the decline of faculty mobility has led to the establishment of programs to develop the talents of faculty members at many institutions. Thus, many of the current forces that exacerbate the quality of teaching are ironically stimulating many to seek the improvement of teaching and the renewal of institutions, thereby reversing the long term neglect of this vital activity.

This Project is supported by a three-year grant from the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. It involves 16 diverse colleges and universities from the Southeast and Midwest who are searching individually and collectively for ways to improve. The institutions are Auburn University, Ball State University, Bethany College, Fisk University, Jackson State University, Loyola University-Chicago, Memphis State University, Old Dominion University, Otterbein College, Saint Mary's College-Notre Dame, Sangamon State University, University of Evansville, University of Richmond, University of Southern Mississippi, University of Wisconsin-Parkside and Western Illinois University. Of the 30 institutions which applied to participate in the Project these 16, eight from each region, were selected.

The basic Project work is done at each institution by a specially designated team which consists of five faculty members from different disciplines an administrator, and a student. During the first year of participation, the teams analyze their institutions, obtain the views and ideas of individuals at their schools, and prepare a plan for educational change; during the second year, the team is enlarged to inlucde up to 14 persons, and the group implements the plan.

In addition to the preparation of this Notebook, which will be given to each team member, the Project supports these various approaches with several activities:

- a weekend conference to orient team members from Southeastern institutions
- a weekend conference to orient team members from Midwestern institutions
- a summer working conference for team members from all 16 institutions
- periodic meetings of liaison persons from each institution to share experiences and plan activities
- dissemination of papers, articles, and books on relevant issues
- several days of consultation for participating institutions
- data gathering and analysis by means of faculty and student questionnaries
- an activity fund of $1,000 so that each team may hold seminars, workshops, or retreats to aid its work
- a training workshop to help faculty members learn to consult with their colleagues on teaching.

Although it is too early to know the value of these different activities, most of the Southeastern schools, who have been working longer than the Midwestern group, are well into the implementation phase of their plans. A careful evaluation is planned to trace the course of developments and to assess changes in individuals and institutions on a variety of "indicators of concern for teaching."

The Project is but one of a number of activities of the Society for Values in Higher Education. The Society is a professional organization that has served as the continuing organization of Kent and Danforth Fellows and recipients of Danforth Fellowships for Women. The Society's brochure states that it has a distinctive "total con-

cern with human beings rather than working from the province of any single discipline or other special interest....The crucial questions -- who shall be educated?, what shall be taught?, by what means?, and to what ends?, serving what values? -- are approached from a variety of perspectives in a growing realization of the significance of these issues for the future of our civilization." It seeks to realize these goals by a number of programs including week-long annual meetings of the membership, a series of area colloquies on a range of value questions, weekend regional conferences on college teaching, area conferences with legislators and professors, and summer institutes in which professors and other professionals address significant issues in national life. This Project is an expression of the Society's commitment to the personal, intellectual, and professional development of individuals and to the enhancement of colleges and universities that they might serve these ends.

I. GENERAL RESOURCES

by
Jerry G. Gaff

Faculty members, administrators, and students must be knowledgeable about their own institutions, higher education, and dynamics in the larger society that affect education if they expect to be instrumental in the renewal of their colleges or universities. This section of the Notebook has been prepared to aid individuals in becoming aware of the variety of general information sources that are available to them.

"But," one may say, "how can I find time to read about education when I am not able to keep up with developments in my field of specialization? And what about the cost -- how can I afford to buy more material?" This is a common and serious plaint, and here I would offer a scheme which is economical in time and money and that would allow the average faculty member or administrator, with major commitments to his academic discipline and burdened with a range of other responsibilities, to keep abreast of current thinking and new developments in higher education. I suggest that he or she subscribe to the Chronicle of Higher Education, a weekly newspaper, and to Change, a monthly magazine; that he subscribe to one or two inexpensive or free newsletters; that he get on the mailing list of Jossey-Bass, Publishers, to receive notices of new books; and that he periodically, every few months, peruse a few journals in the library for items of interest. This plan would cost less than $50 per year and take only a modest amount of his or her time to carry out. These written materials will be discussed in the first part of this section.

But often a person does not need to read; he or she may want to talk with a knowledgeable person or visit another institution to learn about things first hand. The second part of this section deals with programs and people that may serve as useful resources. It will include a description of a few other multi-institutional change projects, a list of a few teaching improvement centers and programs, and the names of members of the Advisory Committee for the Project.

I. Written Materials

A. Periodicals

Two publications contain valuable, timely, and readable reports about all facets of higher education which would interest most academics.

Chronicle of Higher Education. This is a specialized newspaper containing articles of current happenings in higher education. It also contains a list of new books published, notification of job changes, book reviews, calendar of future events, and an extensive listing of job openings. Weekly; $20 per year; 1717 Massachusetts Avenue, N. W., Washington, D. C. 20036.

Change. This monthly magazine presents several thoughtful articles on various aspects of higher education as well as reports on major Washington developments affecting colleges and universities, summaries of major research projects, reviews of books, and reports from individual campuses. It also issues a few topical booklets and currently is publishing a series of special Reports on Teaching. Monthly; $14 per year; Box 2050, Greenwich, Connecticut 06830.

B. Book Publishers

Although many companies publish books on higher education, two publishers have the most comprehensive lists.

Jossey-Bass, Publishers has the most extensive, and perhaps the most useful, list of books on virtually all facets of the field. It sells almost exclusively by mail. Some works are available in almost all college and university libraries. 615 Montgomery Street, San Francisco, California 94111.

McGraw-Hill has published the many reports and sponsored research studies of the recent Carnegie Commission on the future of Higher Education as well as a list of other books. The complete Carnegie series has been sent to the president of each college and university in the country, so it should be available at each institution. 1221 Avenue of the Americas, New York, New York 10020.

C. Journals

As with other fields of study, scholarly journals are the primary vehicle for communicating knowledge about higher education. There are several journals that carry informative articles about teaching and learning and institutional renewal, but some of the most useful and/or most accessible, non-technical publications, are listed below.

AAUP Bulletin is the house organ for the American Association of University Professors, and although its articles reflect the interests and activities of the sponsoring group, it contains several discussions on academic life as they affect

faculty members. Quarterly; $10 per year. American Association of University Professors, One Dupont Circle, N. W., Washington, D. C. 20036.

American Educational Research Journal publishes original research on all levels of education, but some articles in most issues do discuss topics in higher education. Quarterly; $12 per year. American Educational Research Association, 1126 16th Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. 20036.

Educational Record contains several articles in each edition which deal with contemporary issues in the field. Articles are fairly short, some of them were prepared originally as speeches and revised for this publication. Quarterly; $12 per year. American Council on Education, One Dupont Circle, N. W., Washington, D. C. 20036.

Harvard Educational Review tends to emphasize various themes or issues in its publications. Although its articles range over all levels of education, they are generally thoughtful and thorough. Quarterly; $14 per year. Business Office, Longfellow Hall, 13 Appian Way, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138.

Improving College and University Teaching contains many very short items, many written by classroom teachers about their teaching. Although articles are too short to be more than superficial discussions, the variety of issues touched upon may stimulate thinking of faculty members. Quarterly; $9 per year. Oregon State University Press, 101 Waldo Hall, Oregon State University, Corvallis, Oregon 97331.

Journal of Higher Education publishes thoughtful analyses, criticisms, and examples of new approaches in its bi-monthly editions. Some emphasize curricular matters, while others focus on governance and management practices. Bi-monthly; $10 per year. Ohio State University Press, 2070 Neil Avenue, Columbus, Ohio 43210.

Liberal Education publishes articles that relate primarily to undergraduate liberal education and to the predominately small liberal arts colleges that form the constituency of the sponsoring organization. Several in-house items are also included. Quarterly; $5 per year. Association of American Colleges, 1818 R Street, N. W., Washington, D.C. 20009.

New Directions is comprised of three different journals with different foci. New Directions for Higher Education is the most wide-ranging; the one for Community Colleges looks at key aspects from the perspective of two-year colleges; and the volume for Institutional Research treats topics related to this concern. Each sourcebook series is published quarterly; $15 per year. Jossey-Bass, Publishers, 615 Montgomery Street, San Francisco, California 94111.

Sociology of Education is more technical than most of the other journals listed here, but it has well researched material, some of which is related to the major foci of this Notebook. Quarterly; $8 members, $12 non-members. American Sociological Association, 1722 N Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. 20036.

D. Newsletters

Several newsletters are excellent vehicles for finding out about many matters affecting higher education. Some that deal directly with issues of concern to this Project are either free or available at modest cost. They include the following.

Criteria is a publication of a group of colleges and universities that have been identified as having significant teaching improvement programs. This series of newsletters describes their efforts in teaching evaluation, faculty development, and instructional support. Periodically; free. Center for Research on Learning and Teaching, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48104.

Faculty Development and Evaluation in Higher Education has a wealth of information including descriptions of campus programs, original articles on issues related to its areas of focus, a list of new publications in these areas, book reviews, and the like. It is becoming a major communication mechanism among practitioners of professional and organizational development. Quarterly; $5. Dr. Albert B. Smith, Editor, Faculty Development and Evaluation, University of Florida, 340 Norman Hall, Gainesville, Florida 32611.

Findings highlights research conducted by the Educational Testing Service by presenting focused, easy to read articles growing out of the various topics it researches. Implications for educational practice are usually discussed. Quarterly; free. Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey 08540.

Higher Education and National Affairs contains information about federal policy and action affecting higher education as well as notices of important developments throughout the country. Multiple copies are distributed to each institution that is a member of the American Council on Education, which includes most schools, so copies should be readily available on most campuses. Weekly; free to members. American Council on Education, One Dupont Circle, N. W., Washington, D. C. 20036.

Memo to the Faculty treats various topics relevant to teaching and learning. Articles are usually written by faculty members who are leading authorities in their fields. Back issues on such topics as teaching discussion courses, the effects of class size on student learning, and the impact

of college on students are available and constitute particularly useful resources. Quarterly; $3. Center for Research on Learning and Teaching, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48104.

Teaching-Learning Issues discusses topics related to teaching and learning with emphasis on available research. Literature is well summarized and issues focused on certain topics such as interdisciplinary instruction, the Keller plan for courses, and the like. Quarterly; free. Learning Research Center, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee 37916.

E. Other References

An Inventory of Academic Innovation and Reform. A. M. Heiss. For the Carnegie Commission, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1973. Surveys a large number of innovative practices in colleges and universities around the country. Provides a good resource for someone who might want to find out what other schools are doing in regard to the curriculum, courses, or instruction.

Current Issues in Higher Education is an annual compilation of papers presented at the national conferences of the American Association for Higher Education. The 1976 edition is in press. The 1975 paperback edition, Learner-Centered Reform, edited by Dyckman Vermilye, contains an assortment of items of current interest. Published by Jossey-Bass, Publishers, 615 Montgomery Street, San Francisco, California 94111.

ERIC/Higher Education Research Reports is a series of pamphlets which summarize research that has been conducted on various topics. These are short, readable treatments with useful bibliographies. Examples of topics covered recently are experiental education, special needs of minority students, and the articulation between high school and college. American Association for Higher Education, One Dupont Circle, Suite 780, Washington, D. C. 20036.

Information Services of Academic Administration. J. B. L. Hefferlin and E. L. Phillips. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1971. This small book of "information about information" is a guide to a wide range of information sources including workshops, institutes, publications, consulting services, and information centers. These sources remain surprisingly contemporary despite the five years since its publication.

Reports on Teaching. New Rochelle, New York: Change Magazine. This special series of four reports describes some of the most effective teaching that has been identified in twelve different fields of study. Each major example is discussed by one of the leading educational journalists in the country. The first Report included the fields of chemistry, history, and psychology, while the second dealt with biology, English, and political science. Future Reports will examine teaching in economics, physics, music, sociology, art mathematics and philosophy.

The Yellow Pages of Undergraduate Innovations. New Rochelle, New York: Change Magazine, 1974. This is an extensive directory of a wide range of innovative practices. It lists over 3,000 entries, each containing basic descriptive material, keyed by discipline and type of innovation.

II. Programs and People

Although these written materials may be of value, one often does not need them so much as information that may be provided by a thoughtful person with experience in the area of one's interest. But where does one go to find such an individual, particularly if the person wishing help is not very familiar with an area? NEXUS may be the answer. NEXUS is a service organization sponsored by the American Association for Higher Education that specializes in putting people with questions in touch with "experts" who are able to provide some answers. Jane Lichtman or one of her staff of broadly knowledgeable people handle telephone calls, help clarify questions or concerns, and make suggestions of someone from their files of experienced persons who may be contacted for a more extended discussion about the problem. There is no cost for this service; just dial (202) 785-8480. Any serious inquiry is welcomed.

A. Multi-institutional Change Projects

There are, of course, ways to tap more directly into what is known about efforts to improve instruction and change institutions. Below is a list of other multi-institutional projects, which like this one, seek to improve the quality of education. Their staff and programs would constitute useful resources for most persons interested in this Project.

Association of American Colleges
Project on Change in Liberal Education
1818 R Street, N. W.
Washington, D. C. 20009
Francis J. Wuest, Director

American Association of State Colleges and Universities
Resource Center for Planned Change
One Dupont Circle, N. W.
Washington, D. C. 20036
Kent Alm, Director

Cleveland Commission on Higher Education
1367 E. 6th Street
Cleveland, Ohio 44114
Lance C. Buhl, Director

Empire State College
State University of New York
Center for Individualized Education
Saratoga Springs, New York 12866
Thomas Clark, Director

Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education
National Project III - Elevating the Importance of Teaching
400 Maryland Avenue, S. W.
Washington, D. C. 20202
David O. Justice, Program Manager

Great Lakes Colleges Association
Faculty Development Program
Ohio Wesleyan University
Delaware, Ohio 43015
Stephen Scholl, Director

Kansas City Regional Council for Higher Education
Center for Professional Development
4901 Main Street
Kansas City, Missouri 64112
Frederick H. Gaige, Director

Southern Regional Education Board
Project on Undergraduate Education Reform
130 6th Street, N. W.
Atlanta, Georgia 30313
William R. O'Connell, Jr., Director

B. Instructional Improvement Centers and Programs

In addition, several colleges and universities have established centers or programs devoted to faculty development, the improvement of teaching, or professional enrichment. The people who have been involved in these efforts and the experience they have gained -- often times the hard way -- can be very instructive to persons starting out to improve the quality of instruction. An extensive list of such centers and programs appears in the book, Toward Faculty Renewal, by Jerry G. Gaff, but a few selected programs from the two regions served by the Project will be listed here.

Central Michigan University
Division of Instructional Resources
Mt. Pleasant, Michigan 48859
Sherwood E. Bridges, Director

Florida State University
Division of Instructional Research and Service
Tallahassee, Florida 32306
John Merrill, Director

Memphis State University
Center for Learning Research and Service
Memphis, Tennessee 38152
G. Douglas Mayo, Director

Miami-Dade Community College
Office of Staff and Organizational Development
Miami, Florida 33167
Carol Zion, Director

Michigan State University
Educational Development Program
East Lansing, Michigan 48823
Robert H. Davis, Director

Northwestern University
Center for the Teaching Professions
Evanston, Illinois 60201
B. Claude Mathis, Director

Spelman College
Institute for Teaching and Learning
Atlanta, Georgia 30313
Pauline Drake, Director

University of Cincinnati
Institute for Research and Training in Higher Education
Cincinnati, Ohio 45221
Anthony Grasha, Director

University of Florida
Office of Instructional Resources
Gainesville, Florida 32601
Jeaninne Webb, Director

University of Illinois
Office of Instructional Resources
Urbana, Illinois 61801
Charles J. McIntyre, Director

University of Michigan
Center for Research on Learning and Teaching
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48104
Wilbert J. McKeachie, Director

University of Minnesota
Consulting Group on Instructional Design
Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455
Russell W. Burris, Director

University of South Carolina
Learning Resources and Educational Development
Columbia, South Carolina 29208
Jay C. Smith, Dean

University of Tennessee
Learning Research Center
Knoxville, Tennessee 37916
Ohmer Milton, Director

Virginia Commonwealth University
Center for Improving Teaching Effectiveness
Richmond, Virginia 23220
John F. Noonan, Director

Western Michigan University
Office of Instructional Development
Kalamazoo, Michigan 49001
Howard R. Poole, Head

C. Project Advisory Committee Members

Finally, this Project is fortunate to have an impressive collection of individuals on its Advisory Committee. Each person has multiple talents which are of value to this enterprise, and they may be contacted about any aspect of the Project. They are the following.

Dr. John M. Bevan, Vice President for Academic Affairs
College of Charleston
Chairman of the Advisory Committee

Dr. Patricia W. Barnes-McConnell, Department of Urban and Metropolitan Studies, Michigan State University

Dr. Neal Berte, President, Birmingham-Southern University

Dr. Joseph E. Elmore, Vice President for Academic Affairs and Dean of the College, Earlham College

Dr. Seymour Eskow, President, Rockland Community College

Dr. Joseph Katz, Director of Research for Human Development and Educational Policy, State University of New York at Stony Brook

Dr. P. Douglas Kindschi, Dean of College IV, Grand Valley State Colleges

Dr. Samuel H. Magill, Executive Associate, Association of American Colleges

Dr. Ohmer Milton, Director, Learning Research Center, University of Tennessee

Dr. Barbara A. Mowat, Department of English, Auburn University

Dr. John F. Noonan, Director, Center for Improving Teaching Effectiveness, Virginia Commonwealth University

Dr. William R. O'Connell, Program Director, Undergraduate Educational Reform, Southern Regional Education Board

Dr. H. Bradley Sagen, Department of Higher Education, University of Iowa

Dr. Charles A. Vandersee, Assistant Dean, College of Arts and Sciences, University of Virginia

Dr. Clem C. Williams, Jr., Department of English, DePauw University

Dr. Susan W. Wittig, Department of English, University of Texas, Austin

Ex Officio Members: Society for Values in Higher Education

Dr. John D. Maguire, President, State University of New York at Old Westbury; President of the Society

Dr. Harry E. Smith, Executive Director of the Society

Dr. David E. Price, Department of Political Science, Duke University; Chairman, Central Committee of the Society

II. TEACHING

by
Conrad Festa

The idea that teaching is an art has come under attack. Not that there still isn't general agreement that a spark of genius touches the work of excellent teachers, but a growing chorus of opinion questions the extent to which that spark determines excellence and places less value on genius and more on skills that can be mastered by ordinary human beings. A reevaluation of Gilbert Highet, whose book The Art of Teaching published in 1950 articulated the views that had dominated opinion concerning college teaching for decades, is underway and provoking serious dialogue about the philosophy of teaching (Ognibene, 1975).

Teaching used to be a private, laissez-faire concern, but that is changing. To be sure, teachers have always been responsible for what goes on in their classrooms, but now the classrooms are becoming open to observation of how well that responsibility is being exercised. One need only mention a few code words such as accountability, evaluation and merit to suggest a few reasons for that change. But there are compelling reasons other than those, which go beyond the collection of evidence for promotion and tenure, for opening up the activity of teaching to careful examination. One of the major reasons for this change is the shift in emphasis from the teacher to the student. Highet was primarily concerned with the teacher and his subject matter, whereas today there is growing belief that the primary concern is with the teacher's responsibilities to the student and with the effective learning of subject matter. This view of the student at center stage in teaching has been resisted in higher education (especially in larger universities) because it has been associated with the coddling of students, the lowering of standards, the demise of discipline, and the advent of a chaotic, meaningless curriculum. Yet with the increase in the range and diversity of today's students, including a wider range of ages, interests, and formal preparation, comes pressure for faculty to become

more knowledgeable and competent in a broader variety of teaching styles and methods. The experimentation and the adoption of teaching techniques and styles which may correlate more with students' learning patterns is indeed growing, and the result is to open the classroom for observation, training, and evaluation.

One of the consequences of the increasing attention to the variety of students and the openness of the classroom is the awareness that teaching is an enormously complex task. The effectiveness of that teaching is subject to many variables. That very complexity has led to the realization that a large variety of teaching methods and styles are not only possible but also desirable. There is a reluctance among faculty to abandon the traditional lecture or seminar methods. Teachers using these methods have been so resistant to change that a number of research projects have been conducted with a seemingly singular design, to reveal the weakness of the lecture. Yet at the same time many faculty are adding to their repertoire a growing number of other methods including those assisted by modern technology such as computers and media, the individualized Keller Plan or Personalized System of Instruction (PSI), independent study, and experiential learning. Further, the work of psychologists dealing with the basic process of learning clearly indicates that the most effective teaching for many purposes is that which engages the whole person, intellect and emotions. One imaginative example of involving the total person is that in which "a crisis encounter" or a state of conflict is created within the learner. This and other innovative learning strategies are viable alternatives for teachers who possess the skills to conduct them (McMillan, 1973). For an introductory and concise discussion of several alternative teaching methods see James Fiella's "Methods of Teaching: Ways of Turning Non-Learners into Learners" and Wilbert J. McKeachie's Teaching Tips.

Paralleling the introduction of alternative teaching methods has been progress in psychology that has produced measures for things once thought of as immeasurable. The research done in the effectiveness of teaching on different kinds of learning summarized by Wilbert McKeachie and James Kulik has gone far to remove the veil of mystery

surrounding teaching activity. Needless to say, there is much more that needs to be known about learning and teaching, but the work thus far suggests that learnable skills and not merely indefinable art are the salient ingredients of excellent teaching.

The most significant conclusion to emerge, and one worth mentioning, is that no one method or no one style of teaching is the best for all students or for all objectives. This may sound like an inclusive conclusion since the entire issue of the choice of teaching methods thus becomes open-ended. However, in any given instance the method which is most likely to work can be determined. But if that "best" method is to be found, it can only be done by weighing carefully those factors which should influence the choice -- course material, course objectives, class size, characteristics of the students in the class, the teaching resources available, and even the nature of the school itself and the personality of the teacher. Naturally, a great deal of time will be needed to assess each teaching situation and plan a course accordingly. But the picture which arises from the literature is far from discouraging. The time spent by a teacher in developing new methods and gaining new skills promises to yield great benefits in the improvement of his or her teaching. Thus, by acquiring multiple competencies and sensitivities a faculty member may enhance his art of teaching.

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* These are basic works which would be particularly useful in beginning an inquiry.

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III. LEARNING AND STUDENTS

by
Conrad Festa and James R. K. Heinen

The present research zeitgeist in the psychology of learning embraces three domains: teacher behavior, learner behavior, and teacher-student interaction in the classroom milieu. Although these three domains are viewed as theoretically independent, they are, nevertheless, actually inter-dependent. Hence, any practical psychology of learning must acknowledge their confluence when formulating a predictive theory of effective classroom learning and management. It is precisely this problem of reconciling the theoretical and the practical that makes the task of attempting a catholic psychology of learning so difficult.

In considering the area of teacher behavior, perhaps the main topic of investigation has been determinants of effective teaching. As was shown in the literature discussed in the section on Teaching, many discrete variables have been manipulated to determine the pedagogical anatomy of effective teaching behavior. Investigations have sought to contrast authoritarian with authoritative teaching methods, intrinsic with extrinsic motivational modes, and democratic with laissez-faire approaches to teaching. The resulting research has yielded a myriad of contradictory results, which suggest that the most functional variables engendering sound pedagogical practice remain yet to be explored.

Some scholars believe that the concentration on isolated teacher variables may ultimately lead to a general formulation of effective teaching. Thus far, these efforts have tended to particularize understanding of the components of effective teaching rather than summate such components into a predictive and effective theory of the teaching process.

A second focus of inquiry has addressed the learner. Here, research energy has been directed toward developing a theory of learning

behaviors which embraces cognitive and affective behavior as well as their interaction. Congruent with explorations in the area of teaching effectiveness, various theories and experiments provide supportive and contradictory evidence in describing the learner and the learning process. A host of developmental and educational psychologists, while in essential agreement as to the data yielded by systematic experiments on the learning process, are at wide variance on the interpretation of that data. The seminal and generative work of B. F. Skinner and Jean Piaget best reflects these findings. Skinner, in a Lockean framework, views the learner as passive and appeals to extrinsic motivation as the mechanism by which the learner achieves instructional outcomes. Piaget, reflecting more Rousseau's philosophy, views the learner as active and represents the learning experience as intrinsically motivated. Satellite theorists of the learner and learning process tend to mirror these two dichotomies.

Although the experimental evidence is largely fragmentary and lacking in predictive validity, it has several implications for enhancing learning among college students. Ohmer Milton (1972) concluded from his review of the literature that the lack of evidence showing the clear superiority of one style of learning over any other argues that alternative approaches should be tried. He considers individualized instruction as exemplified in the Keller plan, nontraditional or experiential learning opportunities, and inter-disciplinary studies to be the most promising.

Stanford Ericksen (1974) has made a major effort to translate the principles of learning that have been studied by psychologists over the years into practical classroom strategies of college professors. He stresses making the student, not the class, the unit of instruction, building bases for the student to transfer what is learned in the context of a classroom to the advantages of positively reinforcing efforts of students as opposed to criticizing them, and helping students learn how to learn.

A third major area of research inquiry, the learning-teaching process in the classroom milieu, is at once the most ambitious and

the most empirically demanding of the three domains. Here, the task has been to define the relationship between teaching and learning behaviors to maximize the achievement of various instructional objectives. Thielens (1971) has examined a number of factors that affect the quality of the student-teacher relationship, including the interpersonal styles of faculty and students, communication patterns, and the social setting of the classroom.

The discussion thus far has dealt largely with the learning that occurs within the boundaries of a single course. A quite different line of inquiry has sought to characterize students and to chart the path of their growth during the college years. This work adopts a more holistic view of students, examines the entire college environment which impinges on students, and emphasizes a time period that spans the entire college career.

The early studies, such as those presented in the various chapters of Nevitt Sanford's The American College, sought to identify and study important aspects of students, such as their intellectual ability, attitudes toward college, and personality characteristics. They also sought to determine how these various characteristics were distributed among different fields of study in a single institution, as well as between different types of institutions. Eventually, works were produced that focused on certain kinds of students who were considered to be important enough to merit special study. These have included creative students, radicals, and more recently "new" students who entered the schools under open admissions policies including ethnic minorities and lower achieving whites.

The study of student growth and development, particularly of the ways aspects of the college environment facilitated or inhibited this growth, became quite popular during the 1960's. Feldman and Newcomb (1969) were able to review over 1,500 different studies on this topic. They presented evidence that, in general, the student peer group is much more powerful in shaping the development of a student than are their teachers, the curriculum, and their more academic experiences.

They put it this way: "Though faculty members are often individually influential, ...college faculties do not appear to be responsible for campuswide impact except in settings where the influence of student peers and of faculty complement and reinforce one another."

There also is evidence about where faculty members may have the greatest impact on the lives of students. Feldman and Newcomb (1969) concluded: "The conditions for campuswide impacts appear to have been most frequently provided in small, residential, four-year colleges. These conditions probably include relative homogeneity of both faculty and student body, together with opportunity for continuing interaction, not exclusively formal, among students and between students and faculty." A more recent study by Arthur Chickering (1974) on residential and commuting students documents the greater educational value of the former and contains several novel suggestions for setting up short term and quasi residential experiences to obtain their benefits even on predominately commuting campuses. His earlier book, Education and Identity, offers many proposals for making the curriculum, teaching, and faculty members more influential in promoting student growth.

Perhaps the key to achieving this end is to find ways to merge the psychology of learning within courses with longer term directions of change in individual students; to relate what goes on in the college classroom to what happens in other parts of the student's experience. Some of the work in both the psychology of learning and the development of students contains implications for making such connections.

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IV. COURSE DEVELOPMENT

by
Conrad Festa

Some of the most constructive research on learning that has been conducted over the past decade centers around the development of instructional procedures which incorporate conditions to facilitate learning in a practical, working system. Ohmer Milton, in a paper titled "Searching the Learning Research," points out that many of the studies conducted before 1965 were based on the assumption that there is one best method of instruction which can be identified if we just search long and hard enough to find it. Some of the variables, among many that were examined during this period, were class size, instructional method, and television versus live presentations. The studies tended to focus on what the teacher did rather than upon what the student did and were based on the premises that teaching is talking and that teaching produces learning. Since 1965, however, most of the research has moved away from those assumptions in a search for other ways to facilitate learning, particularly in some of the course designs which have been developed as alternatives to the lecture.

But before we examine some of those alternatives, a few comments about the processes by which the new designs are being developed are appropriate since close attention is given to these processes by those who are working in course development. Because there is general agreement that course development is a complex task, more or less comprehensive and systematic methods for designing courses have been developed. Although there are several stylistic variations, virtually all of them stress the necessity to (1) establish goals or objectives, (2) choose appropriate instructional methods, (3) evaluate the achievement of objectives, and (4) revise in light of the evaluation. Most course design systems are based on an organic model -- the parts of a course are not independent units, nor for that matter is the course itself an independent unit -- all course components are intra- and inter-dependent.

The above steps in the course development process may be highlighted. There seems to be a growing conviction that a set of complete

and unambiguous instructional objectives is at the root of well-designed courses. The work of Cohen, Gagné, Mager, and Popham, which has been included in the bibliography, supports the usefulness of instructional objectives and explains the methods by which they can best be formulated and utilized. The results of a survey of 42,000 faculty members revealed that their fundamental goals were, first, the promotion of reasoning; second, the conveying of content; and third, the promotion of self-directed learning. But observers repeatedly note that almost all courses actually emphasize content, often at the expense of reasoning and self-direction in students. Discrepancies of this kind may be eliminated if clear instructional objectives are formulated and actually incorporated into course designs.

All instructors must evaluate students, but few are sophisticated about measurement and testing. One of the primary advantages of specifying clear objectives is that they provide clear criteria by which to evaluate student accomplishment. Some common errors made in testing and evaluation and some principles of sound grading are detailed in a useful way by Milton (1976). Other writers (Popham, 1971) are seeking to identify the advantages and disadvantages of alternative evaluation procedures such as grading on a curve (norm-referenced evaluation) versus grading against an absolute standard (criterion-referenced evaluation).

Consider the choice of methods. A comparison of course offerings in 1976 with those of a decade or so earlier indicates a significant increase in the number and diversity of the courses being offered. One area of change, subject matter content, may be seen in the growing number of vocationally relevant courses; interdisciplinary courses dealing with issues, themes, or social problems; topical courses built around contemporary events or student interests; and traditional courses with substantially altered content, such as images of women in literature or energy and natural resources.

Perhaps the greatest change, however, has been taking place in instructional methods; there has been a greater range of learning experiences provided. A variety of course designs have been developed and tested which offer effective alternatives to the lecture and pro-

mote high efficiency in learning. The Handbook for Faculty Development (Bergquist and Phillips) describes eight common course designs; details concerning these designs can be found in a number of sources included in the bibliographies.

1. Lecture: This is, of course, the most common form of teaching in higher education. In most lectures, the instructor spends the majority of his time sharing information with students in essentially a one-way communication process, with the student placed in a listener role. Student questions and answers are welcomed and an occasional discussion occurs between students and the instructor.
2. Small Group Learning Experiences: These techniques share the goals of actively involving students in the learning process as well as increasing the students' interpersonal and group problem-solving skills. Examples of such techniques are:
   a. Class Discussions: Class discussions, probably the second most frequently used classroom technique in American colleges, generally involve the instructor asking questions of and responding to one or more of the students in the class. At times extensive discussion may take place between students, but usually the dialogue focuses on the instructor.
   b. Buzz Groups: Small sub-groups of students are given a series of questions, topics, or problems to discuss and work on. Each sub-group is asked to come to some kind of resolution with regard to a given question, topic, or problem. The small groups are usually asked to report to the larger class and comments and discussion from other students are welcomed at this time.
   c. Group Courses: Small groups of students are asked to design a segment of a course, and they are responsible for teaching certain topics. The faculty member may be helpful in making suggestions to the students or in commenting on their presentations. This technique is particularly effective after the students have had some previous exposure to the material.
3. Keller Plan: The Keller Plan is a self-paced, student-tutored, and mastery-oriented instructional design. Printed study guides are used for communication, and a few lectures are given by the instructor, usually for stimulation and motivation of students.

A student entering a Keller course finds that the course work is divided into clearly defined topics or units. In a simple case, the content of a unit may correspond to a chapter in the text. Study guides are used to introduce the unit, state student objectives for the unit, suggest study procedures, and list study questions. Before moving on to the second unit, the student must demonstrate mastery of the first unit by perfect or near-perfect performance on a short examination. The student requests the exam when he feels prepared, but each unit must be passed before subsequent units can be attempted. Achieving competence rather than studying for a certain amount of time, such as a semester, is the emphasis in a Keller course.

The instructor selects and organizes material used in the course, writes study guides, and constructs examinations for the course. A few optional lectures or demonstrations may be given during the course, but the lectures are not compulsory and no examinations are based on them. Undergraduate tutors, usually advanced majors in the field or people who have done well in the course the year before, may be used to grade tests, help students who encounter difficulties, and offer support and encouragement for students.

4. Simulation Techniques: Here the course is taught through devices which attempt to reproduce in a controlled fashion the real world. This can include mock jury situations, a complex criminal justice organization, an economic system, a ghetto environment, or numerous other situations. Students are asked to play various roles, and problems typical to the situation are introduced for the students to solve. The emphasis is on the application of content learned through reading and studying in a structured situation. Simulation techniques are available commercially or they can be custom designed by the instructor.

5. Modular Instruction: The basic concept involves offering individual units that cover major content areas of a course. Each unit is a curriculum package designed for self-study, frequently employing audio or visual media. A set of units may be completed in some particular sequence, or students may choose from several modules at any particular time. Time limits may be set for completion

of each module, or students may be allowed to complete units at their own pace. The instructor's role is largely that of developing the modules, monitoring their use, and evaluating student achievement.

6. Peer Teaching: This refers to techniques which use students to help other students learn. One example is to divide students into several small groups. The instructor assigns responsibility for teaching a topic to a student in each of the groups. After completing a topic, a session is spent with each small group leader summarizing for the entire class how he taught the topic and sharing the major points that were taught in their group. The instructor may sit in on groups or may answer particularly hard questions that the student teachers cannot. To ensure that quality instruction takes place, the instructor must monitor closely the work of the student teachers.

7. Contract Teaching: In this model, each student contracts or agrees with the instructor on what he wants to learn and how he will go about it. The contract or agreement should be written and should contain a clearly understood set of specific learning objectives, a number of learning activities, and a description of how achievement will be evaluated. The major advantage of this method is that each student may have a different contract, thereby, individualizing the course. The contract usually is designed as a joint effort by student and teacher. In some cases the teacher may offer a contract to the class specifying clearly the amount of work and types of activities that are expected for different grades. Students are asked to indicate what grade they want to work for in the course.

8. Tutorial Teaching: Here the instructor meets with students individually or in small groups. The topics chosen for study are jointly agreed upon by the instructor and students. The amount of faculty guidance and faculty-student interaction varies depending on the interests and needs of the particular faculty member and students involved. Students usually assume the primary responsibility for presenting and sharing ideas with the instructor, who helps them to sharpen their thinking. Some writing assignment or research project is usually required.

One concluding observation should be made. What the Keller plan and modular instruction are on the course level, competency based and contract plans are on the curricular level; simulation techniques used in courses are analogous to the interdisciplinary curricula centered around themes, issues, or problems. We see, then, that course development and curriculum development are warp and woof of the same fabric. Several patterns that may be seen in both areas are efforts to individualize instruction, make objectives and evaluations consistent, and include content that is directly related to the experiences and interests of students.

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V. CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

by

Conrad Festa and Mark Fravel, Jr.

In a recent column Max Lerner, making predictions for the year 2003, says:

> The crucial struggle will take place within the universities whether they have to do with the nuclear race, genetic manipulation, or the control of the computer. By 2003 it will have become the central institution of the society. New political parties will have their origin there. I am confident we shall have colleges open to all, which means that the gap between mass and elite culture will be all but gone. The blacks, with the new access to higher education, will move into the technical elite along with the whites.

The points Lerner makes are essentially philosophical ones, involved with systems of values which are social, economic, ethical, spiritual, material and political. As society turns toward the 21st century, we can be sure that a vastly different world is emerging in technology, travel, energy consumption, resources, and education. In light of these changes, what will be the pattern in higher education three decades from now?

Although no one can read the future with precision, some possible predictions about colleges and universities may be contemplated, such as these:

1. Universities without campuses will develop.
2. The "free" university will proliferate, at first organized very simply, but becoming increasingly complex as it develops.
3. Media, especially television, will be used more and more for rote and repetitive teaching.
4. Materials for media will become much more professional and sophisticated.
5. The urban university will develop in skyscraper format minus the hoopla of stadium and fraternity.
6. The "world campus" will develop from travel, peace corps, and the old "grand tour".
7. Public systems of higher education will be on the comprehensive community college and upper division university continuum.
8. Multiple media devices for home study will revolutionize educational hardware.

9. Software will become a major part of libraries.

10. Microcard, microfilm and microfiche techniques will greatly increase.

11. Interlibrary loan will be by a new system of facsimile, computer access, etc.

12. Firm sequences in various disciplines will be "nationalized" for computer program planning and registration.

13. Professors will hold Oxford-type seminars and discussions, and will minimize lecture presentations.

14. For major and graduate work there will be greatly increased research and individualized approaches.

15. Class attendance will be reduced and modified. (Due to media presentation or rote material only during 40% of the time will a student be in attendance. That will be for discussion and consultation.)

16. First-hand "internships" will proliferate in disciplines not now using them.

17. A post doctoral degree, such as "laureate," will be established.

18. Data-retrieval banks on a regional basis will make many library holdings obsolete.

19. Interscholastic athletics will die out or become frankly professionalized.

20. Great universities will have extension operations all over the world.

21. Buildings on campuses, where they exist, will be composite -- unified -- not dispersed.

22. Correspondence and testing techniques will develop greatly due to and through the use of media.

23. Great industry will provide competitive fellowships and scholarships under a fixed-span employment agreement.

24. Great industries and great universities will become more and more intertwined -- the "Technostructure".

25. Accountability will become a reality. Lawsuits for educational malpractice will become commonplace.

26. Students will become intolerant of incompetence and demand responsibility for their own learning.

27. The urban university classroom will become increasingly community based and field oriented.

28. A far greater range of people from industry and the professions, will be classified and utilized as faculty.

29. Open enrollment will be commonplace and most citizens will become life-long students.

30. Universities will be far more controlled and monitored by lay groups.

Given these changes in society-at-large, and in colleges and universities especially, what is coming in the realm of curriculum development? If a liberal art is one which frees man from the bondage of ignorance in such a way as to relate him to the cosmos, then it is evident that the whole idea of liberal arts, as we have known it, is subject to revision. Such reassessment is in the offing in curriculum development now.

Recently, the University of Richmond, a participating school in the Project for Institutional Renewal through the Improvement of Teaching, undertook a major curriculum review. The thorough way in which they proceeded provides a model for other schools contemplating curriculum change. They began with this premise: "A university's curriculum is an expression of its educational and intellectual priorities and values. Periodically that curriculum must be reevaluated and perhaps reconstructed as the university redefines its goals." This statement provides authority and imperative for change, while it also articulates a philosophical basis upon which curriculum can develop. The curriculum that they were to select had to relate directly to the school's goals.

Therefore, the first task of Richmond's Curriculum Committee was to articulate the goals of the University as of 1975. This they did by isolating seven specific objectives, such as the development of cognitive skills, the development of interpersonal skills, and the provision of options for students; stating them clearly and unambiguously. Next, they established a set of three guidelines to be followed as curriculum changes were considered: (1) avoidance of repetition of high school studies, (2) reduction in percentage of time spent in meeting proficiency and distributional requirements, and (3) encouragement of intellectual commerce between faculty members in different disciplines. The direction was clear; their curriculum was going to be more open than it had been, and it was going to have a distinctly interdisciplinary flavor.

After this, the committee considered and categorized curricula used at other institutions into three groups which seemed to repre-

sent major national trends in curriculum development: individualized curricula, competency-based programs, and interdisciplinary programs. A variety of specific programs in each of the three groups are discussed in detail in the literature, but only a brief description of a typical program from each of the groups will be discussed here.

Several years ago, Duke University adopted a plan which allows for individually designed curricula. In addition to its traditional program built around various departmental requirements designed to give students a broad education, Duke offers two alternatives. Program II curriculum provides the student of unusual interests or talents with the opportunity to design a plan of study suited specifically to his aspirations. Courses in this program may include such activities as work taken at other universities, service in internship or apprenticeship programs, research done off-campus, independent reading, special work in creative writing or musical composition, as well as conventional courses. Program III brings together a group of students interested in a specific theme, idea, or subject. These students live together and devote their time to a concentrated semester-long interdisciplinary study of their chosen subject.

In addition to individualized or multi-curricular programs, competency based programs are also gaining popularity. The curriculum in these programs is also open and allows for individualized tailoring by the students. In this case, however, instead of aiming at the individual student's interests and strengths, the program aims at his weaknesses in order to help the student reach certain clearly defined competencies which must be demonstrated before graduation. These curriculum attainments (competencies) may be set both at the school and departmental levels, and many programs incorporate methods designed to accomodate individual patterns of learning and growth. Competency may be determined in various ways. Florida State University has a program in which competency is not evaluated by the students' own instructors, but by a committee of other faculty members and off-campus practitioners in order to introduce a measure of objectivity into the evaluation process. This particular program does not call for new specially designed courses to be developed or for interdisciplinary courses to be created.

Interdisciplinary programs, as a rule, are designed as one or two year programs which may provide students with an integrated general education, lead to the development of close relationships with the faculty, and introduce students to various methods of thinking and learning. Most of these programs attempt to relate academic disciplines to contemporary issues by selecting themes such as "Women" or "Self and Society in the Twentieth Century". Another emphasis common in interdisciplinary programs is that placed on the personal growth and development of students. Although these programs may be less individualized than those in the previous two groups, concern for the student as an individual is in evidence, here, too. For instance, a variety of thematic topics may be offered, and the student permitted to choose one. The close relationships between faculty and students in these programs also aid in individual attention if not individual direction of courses of study.

How these new curricula are meeting the needs of students who are much more vocationally oriented is not yet clear. However, some recent literature on advising and counseling suggests a trend among students toward narrowing their selection of courses to those which are closely related to their major field. The new curricula which are more open and allow more freedom of choice by students, encourage or may permit them to neglect breadth in their education. The growing professionalism, the emphasized specialization, and the keen competition in the world they are looking to enter may be viewed as so important by students that they narrow their vision and do not follow their broader interests. Vocationalism is a phenomenon which must be considered by those now working on curriculum development.

Another component in curriculum development is the faculty. How they respond and react to future challenges may determine whether some institutions wither and die or flourish and thrive as the twenty-first century draws near. The college professor is increasingly characterized as a specialist, sought for his limited but exhaustive expertise. Faculty may remain tradition-bound, or may choose to participate in a creative, vital, tradition-sharing and tradition-shattering university in the future. Such a university, through its curriculum, can

awaken to the voices of the future, and can become a shaper of the future.

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*These are basic works which would be particularly useful in beginning an inquiry.

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VI. ADVISING

by
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Robert Knapp in "The Changing Functions of the College Professor" in Nevitt Sanford's (ed.) The American College and Christopher Jencks and David Riesman in The Academic Revolution recall an earlier time when professors were intimately concerned with the whole student. To be sure, at that time the role of professor as counselor/adviser was simplified because a small and homogenous student body had few choices available. However, a shift to academic specialization began at about the turn of the century and by the end of World War II this specialization accelerated rapidly. One result was that faculty members spent less time in formal counseling duties. During this time, institutions of higher learning initiated changes in their systems of student advisement. Concomitantly, counselors (as distinct from faculty advisers) deriving from the World War II veteran's counseling bureaus, began to assume greater roles on campuses.

Today in many institutions some of the most fundamental advising needs in the areas of course and curriculum choices still are not met adequately. One part of the problem is that advisory tasks have become increasingly complex. A brief history of what appears to have happened may give a perspective on the present problems in advising. It helps to explain why so little formal attention or research has been given over to the vexing problem of academic advising, a problem recently exacerbated by intense vocationalism and changing interests exhibited by college students.

Student advising has been done largely by the faculty, and the scope of their task has included essentially matters of advice on courses and curricula rather than attention to psychological or more personal concerns. Traditionally, the faculty accepted the latter responsibility also as part of its duties. With the vigorous growth in institutions of higher learning since post World War II days, a great strain has been placed on the old advising systems. A fundamental problem was the heterogeniety of the greatly expanded student

body -- an extreme diversity in students' interests, goals, backgrounds, and competencies (Cross, 1972). Another catalyst for change, however, seems to have been a staggering proliferation of course offerings and the introduction of more flexible and diverse curricula. Institutions responded by appointing advisers primarily from among the faculty who developed an expertise in the possibilities and complexities of the greatly expanded student choices (Bryer, 1974). These experts successfully met the students' academic advising needs, but they were unprepared often to respond to the more difficult and challenging personal and vocational problems.

A new professional has developed -- one who spends more time becoming qualified to deal with students' individual needs and less time in teaching and with teachers (Warnath, 1972). The formal training of these new professionals, now called counselors, has involved acquiring expertise in psychology, tests and measurement, vocational and career education. As the limits of this new professional role have been more sharply defined, personal and vocational advisement has become central, whereas academic advisement, particularly course and curriculum selection, has become more peripheral.

In the counseling literature, one finds now, for example, much attention devoted to adults, psychotherapeutic techniques, value formation and clarification, as well as tests and measurement, vocational and career counseling which includes an emphasis on the breaking down of sex barriers to gain access to various occupations such as women getting into high technology fields or men into nursing or primary education. Often separated from the classrooms and teachers these professionals, counselors in the broadest sense, are increasingly aware of the difficulty of also providing solid academic advice. A result is renewed interest in the development of effective systems to meet all the needs of the students, and most particularly their need for academic advice and direction (Berdie, 1975).

If one assumes that students may benefit most from a college experience in which student personnel services are maximally integrated with instructional programs, then a systematic and coordinated faculty

advisement effort becomes a priority item. Melvene Hardee, of Florida State University, a persuasive and concerned writer on advisement over the past several decades, differentiates between faculty advising and counseling in the following manner: "(a) faculty advising, an activity dispatched by members of the teaching faculty and directed toward assisting students with their educational, vocational, and personal concerns at a defined level of competence, and (b) counseling, which enlists the efforts of persons who are specifically trained and experienced in the areas of educational, psychological, or clinical counseling procedures," (1970). Faculty advisement includes ascertaining and assessing the teaching-learning purposes of the institution and of the individual student, and, with the student, trying to make the possibilities become realities. The faculty adviser, then, becomes a coordinator of the student's learning experiences -- both in class and extra class experiences -- and assists in the integration of the various campus services available to a student including academic, health, psychological, remedial, financial, vocational, and career help and religious counseling. Hardee (1970) also points out that a faculty adviser's role further involves helping the student to effect a program of study consonant with the student's interests and abilities; periodically evaluating, with the student's aid, his/her academic progress; and assisting the individual to begin an exploration of occupational and professional plans. In this model of advisement, the professionally trained counselor, in addition to servicing students, may serve as teacher for groups of faculty on topics such as personality development or individual appraisal; work one-on-one with faculty members, or combine with administrators and teachers in programs for the physically handicapped, the disadvantaged, or campus-community projects, for example.

Using the Hardee paradigm, what might be some components of a successful advising program? First, there ought to be sound administrative support, planning, and coordination at all levels with adequate financial and human resources allocated to advisement. Secondly, there need to be rewards for faculty who advise with consideration given in a faculty member's evaluation for this service function. Responsibilities assigned to the faculty adviser ought to be clearly defined

and specified, including the breadth and depth of his or her role in personal counseling and relationship with the professional counselors and other campus services. Furthermore, faculty need to have clear knowledge of lines of authority and responsibility. All involved in the advising process -- students, parents, faculty and administrators -- need to be aware of what are the purposes and procedures of faculty advisement. Careful selection of persons to serve as advisers and thorough in-service training are also imperatives within a program which is thoughtfully structured and planned and which demonstrates flexibility.

Many other issues are brought out in the literature and need to be addressed by those involved in faculty advisement. Questions such as the following are raised: who evaluates merit in advising?; what is the nature and effectiveness of the adviser-mentor role in external degree programs?; how may paraprofessionals best be used?; what is the future of computer-assisted or automated advisement systems vis-à-vis personal advising? These are but a few examples. Actual programs also may be usefully studied such as those which historically have been cited for excellence including Stephens College, Albion College, and Southwest Texas State University (San Marcos). A sampling of some institutions which are currently involved in innovative efforts, particularly mentorship programs, are Memphis State University and Auburn University, participating universities in the Project on Institutional Renewal through the Improvement of Teaching, and College of Charleston (South Carolina).

The faculty advises more students (not only in academic but also in personal matters) than does the professional staff (Kopplin and Rice, 1975). Recognition of the faculty who play this important role hopefully will encourage the development of coordinated and cooperative systems of advisement in which professional counselors, faculty members, and paraprofessionals (enlisted largely from the student body) work together to help students in issues such as value clarification, goal direction, life planning, and course and curriculum selection (Field and Hecker, 1974). Clearly, no one system will meet the needs

of all institutions. Each school must assess its own particular context, and develop a system which will most effectively meet its needs and the needs of its students in the areas of curricular and course choices, learning skills and teaching methods, and educational, vocational and career goals, especially.

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VII. FACULTY DEVELOPMENT

by
Sally Shake Gaff

Faculty development within the last few years has become a major part of the lexicon in many colleges and universities, with a wide range of activities purported to come under the rubric, and for quite disparate reasons. What is the basic rationale which justifies the numerous efforts made and expenditures incurred while invoking the name of faculty development?

Much of the recent impetus for professional development has resulted from the demise of the expanding universe in higher education. The finiteness of resources, both human and financial, has become a reality. Institutions are now faced with questions of how to be effective, creative, and challenging within a reduced context of possibilities. In like measure, faculty members are asking themselves how they, as individuals, can continue to be effective, creative, and challenged, with fewer opportunities for mobility and more likelihood of spending a large portion of their teaching life at a single institution. Moreover, even with the extension of college experience to more diverse students -- to more women, to minorities, to those who must be employed while enrolled as students, and to older persons -- the enrollment picture at many universities is not bright. As a consequence, high quality and excellence in teaching have become more than ideals; they have become survival skills, both for individuals and organizations.

Concomitant with these occurrences, psychologists and others have begun to look at the adult years, the middle years of life, with greater interest and intensity. Developmental psychology has focused heretofore on childhood and adolescence, and more recently on the aged, but the gap between the early and later years has been neglected. As Bernice Neugarten (1968) has pointed out, developmental psychology has lacked an integrated theory of the total life span. Though many may agree that basic personality structures are formed in the early years, that one's self becomes more stabilized as one matures, this does not mean that adults are incapable of change. Habit patterns can be altered;

more satisfying ways of relating to oneself and to others can be found; more effective coping mechanisms can be acquired. Daniel Levinson (1974), Roger Gould (1972) and others are trying to outline and describe stages of adult development through which most of us progress -- from entering the adult world filled with hopes, dreams, and fantasies, to questioning what life is all about and how we fit into it, to trying to become one's own person, independent and self-governing. These authors and others note that there are, in addition to easily perceived periods of growth, periods of instability, transition, or suspended animation which eventually can lead to greater restabilization. Harold Hodgkinson (1974) has sought to relate these general stages of adulthood to the life patterns of faculty and administrators in specific terms; to speculate that there may be a sequence of progression through the groves of academe just as there is in human development itself. This concept then, of adults, who are not finished products, but who can learn new skills and strategies, who can grow and change, in fact who may go through somewhat predictable stages of development, paves the way for considerations of faculty development.

There is a concern expressed in the literature not only with personal growth but also with development professionally. Donald W. Light, Jr. in "The Structure of the Academic Professions," comments that academics often are professionals only in their disciplines, but not necessarily in their teaching. A similar stance is taken by Ohmer Milton and E. Joseph Shoben, Jr. in their book, Learning and the Professors, when they comment that "College teaching is probably the only profession in the world for which no specific training is required." The question of what constitutes a professional can be discussed at length but most appear to agree that though a professional's activities are based on an intellectual component or a body of knowledge, the practice of a profession also involves craftsmanship which is teachable and learnable.

If one assumes that personal growth and development are possible as an adult, and that the craft of teaching may be taught and learned, then faculty development becomes a possibility. Further, as one is forced to operate under current economic and demographic conditions,

faculty development becomes desirable and even necessary. But, being possible or necessary because of these factors does not justify faculty development, nor does it help provide a comprehensive theory or approach. What is professional development, and what ought it to be? If any institution has a well-developed sabbatical leave plan, or manages to have some faculty attend conferences or national disciplinary association meetings, that college does not have a faculty development program as currently interpreted.

Consider some of the newer definitions. "Faculty development is an attempt to help improve teaching effectiveness in higher education," (Phillips, 1976). "Faculty development is an institutional process which seeks to modify attitudes, skills and behavior of faculty members toward greater competence and effectiveness in meeting student needs, their own needs, and the needs of the institution," (Francis, 1975). "Most faculty development programs are superficially conceptualized, parochial in strategies and tactics, capable of only trivial outcomes... they do not have adequate theory; second, they do not employ a comprehensive approach; and third, they do not show a deep intention," (Martin, 1975). Much current literature seeks, then, to conceptualize faculty development in a comprehensive way and with a theoretical base. Instructional resource centers, teaching improvement programs or any other singular development activity are being planned and implemented within this larger framework.

Jerry Gaff (1975) has distinguished three general approaches to faculty renewal which include faculty development, instructional development, and organizational development. The first approach rests on clinical, developmental, and social psychology as its intellectual base, with a focus on individual growth and development of faculty as persons and as teachers. The second approach is based intellectually in education, instructional technology and media, learning theory, and systems theory. Its primary foci are courses and curricula. The organizational development facet focuses on the institution itself with roots in organizational theory, organizational change and group process.

Also advocating a comprehensive approach to faculty development are Bergquist and Phillips (1975) utilizing the personal, instructional and organizational as categories within which changes occur at the levels of attitude, process, and structure, respectively. When working with concerns of a personal nature, faculty interviews, interpersonal skills training, counseling, personal growth workshops are illustrative activities. When the concern is instructional including curriculum development, then microteaching, classroom diagnosis, and educational methodologies are sample programs; while departmental management development, team-building, conflict management and decision-making are target areas of organizational development. Much of the literature deals with these types of techniques and their usage, however, in this resource notebook the structural and organizational components are treated in the sections on administrative development and institutional change, and faculty evaluation is included as a separate topic.

A further consideration in comprehensive planning, programming and implementing of faculty development, is an awareness of the attitudes about faculty development which evolve through stages similarly to the programs or individuals themselves. John B. Francis (1975) points to the need to analyze the relationship between program content and the level of institutional awareness. Institutional awareness may occur at three levels. The level of Consciousness Raising includes becoming critically aware and unfreezing existing attitudes. Level two, Focal Awareness, involves substituting new attitudes and behaviors for old ones, and practicing the new repertoire. The third level is that of Subsidiary Awareness, when the new attitudes are firmly established and no longer require conscious attention to them. Faculty development activities are most successful when they operate within a context in which the programs and policies fit the appropriate stages of awareness in the institution. Ineffectiveness and incongruence occur when ideas of an abstract, or practical, or diagnostic sort are introduced out of phase with the level of awareness.

Though the writers about faculty development emphasize that institutions have a responsibility to provide opportunities for faculty to develop their competencies, they also point out that it is a respon-

sibility of teachers to develop themselves. David Brown and William Hanger (1975) suggest a number of strategies by which individual faculty members can grow, procedures which can be self-initiated and carried out; although obviously, they point out, institutional policies and administrative reinforcement and support make the process easier. The current academic situation demands faculty members help energize the institution, shifting the emphasis in leadership from achieving stability to achieving vitality. Faculty do this by pragmatically developing themselves -- changing environments, risking new exposures, changing habit patterns, and undertaking new challenges.

The literature, then, essentially points to the need for a comprehensive approach to professional development -- to considering adult development, to developing or adopting models such as the personal, instructional, and organizational to help clarify thinking and improve implementation; to analyzing the institutional level of awareness about faculty development and change and integrating that dimension into the decision-making process regarding which programs to attempt; to encouraging each faculty member working on his or her own to revitalize as a person and teacher, individually. Furthermore, many people argue that financial exigency is not and should not be the reason, the justification for faculty development, though it may have been the impetus. To be successful, Warren Martin (1975) is convinced that faculty development efforts need to be as important to the individuals involved as to the institution, as substantive as procedural, as concerned with learning and the learner as with quantifying or categorizing relationships. Moreover, unless faculty themselves feel valued, important, fulfilled, competent, as whole persons, they cannot contribute greatly to student's growth or institutional well-being.

Faculty development, then, for what? Martin offers these ideas: to help faculty exemplify humane and liberal learning; to help provoke curiosity and inquisitiveness within students so that they are enabled to reach a new level of complexity; to establish an educational rationale and program for the future which will be in keeping with the evolving needs of students, faculty, and society; to become imaginative,

compassionate, fully actualized human beings capable of strengthening educational institutions and serving as educational exemplars and leaders for students. The challenge today is to discover ways for teachers to realize such noble aspirations.

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Collection of articles looking at positive and negative factors associated with the "professionalization" of faculty including in-service training, administrative relationships, pre-service training. Uses campus examples. Argues that faculty are the ones who accept or reject statements of what their institutions

do, and who implement institutional goals and purposes. Though book targets the community colleges, it is useful to those in other types of institutions because many issues are the same.

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Outlines problems, practices, and possibilities of "career development" at various colleges and universities with an attempt to tie in the individual -- his needs, aspirations and expectations at various stages -- to goals, concerns and characterisitcs of the institutions. Articulates ways of helping faculty during early, middle, and late career stages, and makes specific recommendations of what administrators at all levels can do to support effective teaching and the development process.

*Eble, K. E. Professors as Teachers, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1972.
Author directed the Project to Improve College Teaching, Association of American Colleges and the American Association of University Professors, in which he searched the literature, visited many campuses, and attended a variety of conferences to study career development of effective teachers, development of optimum working conditions for effective teaching, as well as recognition and evaluation of teaching. This overview of the professoriate offers recommendations and suggested reforms primarily within existing structures.

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Francis, J. B. "How Do We Get There From Here?: Program Design for Faculty Development," Journal of Higher Education, Vol. XLVI, November/December, 1975, 719-32.
Analyzes stages through which attitudes about faculty development pass at a given institution. Points out that procedures, programs and practices should differ depending upon the current attitudinal stage at a specific college. Uses Kurt Lewin's models as the basis for his discussion on human awareness levels, as starting point for development of Consciousness Raising, Focal Awareness, and Subsidiary Awareness stages in a university. Elucidates the pitfalls of incongruence when programs or ideas of an abstract, or practical or diagnostic sort are introduced out of phase with the institutional level of awareness. Specific program elements are included.

Freedman, M. (guest ed.) Facilitating Faculty Development. New Directions for Higher Education, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Spring 1973.
This issue of the Jossey-Bass New Directions topical sourcebook series emphasizes development of faculty in terms of self-understanding as well as organizational structure and milieu. Includes articles by Freedman, Nevitt Sanford, John Noonan, Donald Gerth, Joseph Axelrod, Norbert Ralph and others. Chapters deal with a review of changes in faculty life since the 1960's, the role of the professor as artist at teaching, stages of faculty development, institutional approaches to faculty development, faculty development through experimentation, and interinstitutional cooperation.

Furniss, W. T. "Faculty Development and the Department," ADE Bulletin (Administrators of Departments of English), No. 47, November, 1975, 30-35.
A look at faculty development containing criticisms of many current efforts, even suspicions of what is sometimes done for the purpose of promoting greater effectiveness among faculty. Argues that in the right atmosphere, one that approximates the ideal of a community of scholars, faculty members will develop on their own initiative. Suggest reading in tandem with S. R. Phillips, "What Then is Faculty Development?," a direct response to this article.

*Gaff, J. G. Toward Faculty Renewal, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1975.
Establishes a conceptual framework for approaching instructional improvement including faculty development, instructional development, and organizational development. Describes the focus, purposes, intellectual bases of each and gives examples of types of activities as well as specific programs illustrative of each concept. Choice, May, 1976 says in a review that this book "addresses what institutions can do to help develop their faculties. This is one of the few critical analyses of the various efforts undertaken nationwide to address these two questions."

*Group for Human Development in Higher Education. Faculty Development in a Time of Retrenchment, New Rochelle, New York: Change Magazine, 1974.
The booklet which crystallized national attention on the professional development of faculty. Written clearly and for the general reader, it faces directly the problem of how to find innovative ways to further stimulate quality and excellence in teaching as a performing art, mid-career transitions, need for faculty development, campus programs on teaching, purposes of evaluation. Authors include Alexander Astin, Craig Comstock, David Epperson, Andrew Greeley, Joseph Katz, Joseph Kauffman. Actual program examples are used.

Hodgkinson, H. L. "Adult Development; Implications for Faculty and Administrators," Educational Record, Vol. 55, Fall, 1974, 263-74.
Relates theories of adult life cycle to problems and stages in the professional development of teachers and administrators. Uses adult development patterns and concepts of Daniel Levinson, Gail Sheehy, Roger Gould, and others as basic categories. Concepts such as the Dream, the Mentor. "Catch-30", becoming one's own man,

middlescence, and restabilization are related to how faculty conceive and actualize themselves in their professional roles, and the conflicts and crises they have at various stages of their career development. The same is done for administrators. Not a data based study, but from own experience and reading; stimulates readers to speculate further.

Martin, W. B. "Faculty Development as Human Development," Liberal Education, Vol. LXI, May, 1975, Washington, D. C.: Association of American Colleges, 187-96.
A provocative philosophical and theoretical treatment of faculty development. Stresses the need for an omnibus approach and an adequate theory of faculty development. States that such theory should encompass a sophisticated understanding of the process of professionalization in historical, social and institutional terms as well as an integrated theory of human development. Faults those efforts which benefit the institution or administration more than the individual, which deal more with process than substance, and which deal more with quantifying and categorizing the teacher-student relationship and less with learner and learning. Suggests faculty serve as exemplars of the educational ideal, as leaders in defining educational tasks, and as leaders of their institutions. Identifies as primary that teachers gain self-fulfillment in order to be effective with students and to provide positive impact in the educational community.

Miller, W. S. and Wilson, K. M. Faculty Development Procedures in Small Colleges, Research monograph No. 5, Atlanta: Southern Regional Education Board, 1963.
This data based study of 228 small colleges describes faculty development procedures related to teaching effectiveness and professional growth. This was an early study, done prior to the more recent surge of interest and includes program descriptions in sample institutions.

O'Banion, T. "Staff Development: A New Priority for the Seventies," The College Board Review, No. 99, Spring, 1976, 26-33.
Several rationales are suggested in this article for Staff Development programs and approaches used by various community colleges. Though article speaks to goals and purposes of the community colleges, faculty and staff needs for updating in their disciplines and in education, staying attuned to the philosophy and commitment of the institution, having an appreciation and understanding of students and the changing nature of the student population, growing personally, professionally, and individually, all seem to be consonant with needs in any educational institution. Views staff development as an instrument of institutional change and offers examples where this has occurred. Articulates six approaches: retreats, interpersonal relations, personal renewal, instructional improvement, curriculum or staff institute, staff development with organizational development.

*O'Banion, T. Teachers for Tomorrow: Staff Development in the Community-Junior Colleges, Tucson: University of Arizona Press, 1973.
Again, though oriented to community colleges, the ideas are appli-

cable in a variety of institutions. Describes a need for massive support for staff development programs, and outlines major efforts in pre-service and in-service program planning as well as suggestions to meet diverse staff needs. An earlier work with similar thrust to the above entry, but different institutional examples.

Phillips, S. R. "What, Then, Is Faculty Development?," ADE Bulletin, (Administrators of Departments of English), No. 49, May, 1976, 11-17.
A rejoinder to the Furniss article. This article clarifies many misconceptions people have about this effort. Indicates how colleges and universities may establish programs to stimulate and facilitate the full development of faculty members. Argues that these positive thrusts, not a retreat into the past, represent the most promising way to meet the future needs of faculty members and of institutions. A reply by Furniss is made also. Should be read in tandem with Furniss' "Faculty Development and the Department."

Toombs, W. "A Three Dimensional View of Faculty Development," Journal of Higher Education, Vol. XLVI, No. 6, November/December, 1975, 701-17.
Advocates planning for faculty development within a comprehensive, programmatic framework addressing both practical and conceptual issues. Proposes to look at faculty development through three dimensions: the professional, curricular, and institutional. From these dimensions emerge principles for planning and a programming matrix.

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VIII. ADMINISTRATIVE DEVELOPMENT

by
Sally Shake Gaff

The current configuration and conundrum in higher education which has served as a catalyst for rethinking, reshaping, and regenerating teaching and learning strategies, curriculum and course construction, faculty evaluation and growth efforts, has also impacted heavily on administrators and administrative practices and roles. The milieu in which most academic administrators find themselves today is one of austerity and minimal growth; of organic systems approaches to organization and administration; of collective bargaining, affirmative action and equal rights issues requiring more careful and judicious concern; of growing government involvement; of fiscal allocation and accountability being carefully scrutinized; of demands for management, administrative and leadership skills and expertise which are of a highly technical and sophisticated sort. College administrator as master of organizational change, of MBO, MIS, and PPBS, of the latest legal cases, is a far cry from the image which many administrators from Presidents to department chairpersons had of themselves when they decided to take on, or in some cases happened to fall into, such a professional role.

Just as some faculty find themselves ill-prepared to work with maximal effectiveness today, so many administrators are recognizing their similar plight. The societal and institutional changes forcing modifications on the part of academic administrators often hit them harder than they might business and industrial managers, or faculty who need to update their knowledge in their own areas of specialization. This seems so because most college and university administrators have had little direct training to prepare them with the knowledge or skills demanded of them as educational executives; many have not actively planned their administrative careers, nor have they interned with or studied others successfully functioning in similar roles to model themselves upon excellence. Warren Bennis (1973), an authority on organizational development and President of the University

of Cincinnati, addresses this issue,"...I am more and more impressed with the almost total lack of any rational career plan for academic administrators. Most of us got into this work adventitiously and most of us do what we have either observed others do when they were in these roles or emulate, incorrectly, some other shadowy figures of the past, fantasies of Harvard Business School products, General Patton, creatures of fiction or movies, or some atavisms of leadership and authority which never were...." Thus, some of the literature on administrative development in higher education is devoted to articulating the lack of preparation and planning for the job prior to getting into administration, and the consequences of this situation.

A correlative problem in higher education administration is the relative lack of women adminstrators. The numbers of women in college and university administrative positions is relatively low, even when compared with women in the faculty ranks. Several bibliographic sources help to elucidate this situation. Nancy Schlossberg (1974) describes experiences of women in male-dominated professions including the role top administrators play in reinforcing psychological and other barriers to the attainment and achievement by women of high leverage positions. She cites a number of studies which illustrate these problems. The two issues on women in administration published by The Journal of the National Association of Women Deans, Administrators and Counselors (1975) deal at greater length with these issues including characteristics of women in administration and their future roles.

Another issue which seems to arise in the literature is that quite often administrators are selected for reasons other than their demonstrated managerial skills. James Roach, for example, estimates that probably 80% of the administrative decisions on a university campus take place at the departmental level. Department chairpersons, however, rather frequently do not hold their positions because of their administrative adeptness and skill. They shift from being a subject matter specialist within a discipline to a "developer of departmental programs and a partner in shaping the educational mission of the school," Roach comments (1976). He further points out that there is little training provided for the new position and usually at best an inadequate

job description exists, yet the role of chairperson is becoming more significant.

This lack of clear, well-defined competencies needed for various administrative tasks and roles, and of adequate descriptions of the responsibilities of the jobs themselves, is pointed out over and over in the literature. What descriptions do exist for academic administrative positions are often vague or general. There is little consensus on requirements for any administrative position or of the ideal person to fill it. However, more attempts are being made currently to fill the gap. For example, when focussing on the academic dean, effective leadership might be perceived as the capability of effecting change without creating a revolution and adeptness at getting things done (Gould, 1964) whether in relationship with the president, department chairpersons or as faculty leader. Another perspective comes from Wilbert McKeachie (1968). He has commented that the scholarly training in analyzing a problem, weighing evidence and considering the adequacy of alternatives are skills which are as useful to solving the problems of a department as in scholarly research. Personal qualities of effectiveness for those considering or being considered for a departmental chairpersonship, for example, might well include qualities of openness, integrity, objectivity; ability to administer a departmental program; job and human relations skills, ability to maintain a high level of professional competence (Roach, 1976). They would need to develop planning skills; communicating, representing, negotiating, coordinating, facilitating functions; problem solving; and organizing and administering capabilities. Additional literature deals specifically with roles of various administrators -- the president, dean, trustee, and others.

Just as there are numerous models of effective administration so are there diverse concepts of leadership. Some argue that academic institutions have leadership problems because they take a person out of the role of scholar-moralist-educator into that of administrator. This trend, the argument continues, should be reversed and academic leadership in the future ought to be a return to the former atmosphere of scholarship and collegiality, (Butler, 1976). Others,

rather than extolling traditional virtues and models, are formulating new concepts of leadership and organization given the new conditions in higher education. One such alternative is the multiple leadership model, currently in use at ITT, TWA and Sears Roebuck, applied to colleges and universities. Earle Clifford (1976) suggests the applicability of this model in which there could be three administrators (collectively referred to as "office of the chairman"), each of whom would be a specialist in finance, academic affairs, or student concerns, for example. At the same time they would have an understanding and knowledge of the complexities in their own area of expertise, they would also be generalists -- for Clifford, artists -- who approach new problems and their solutions creatively and humanely. Using these business and industry models, there would be a rotating chair of presidency so that each "president" would serve for one year as chairman, appearing and speaking for the university during that year when one visible person was needed. While the former position was an advocacy of return to a scholarly and collegial model, this arrangement points to the leadership talent of those, who, with success in leadership outside of education, are ready to retire between 45-55 or to seek new careers in which to use their abilities and creativity, as a source of administrative savoir-faire for higher education.

Many educational friends and foes alike seem convinced that what higher education needs even more than money is good management. Hence, the higher education executive as manager is another prevalent topic of concern in the literature. Some point out that higher education has not kept pace with business and industry in learning and adopting new technologies and strategies. Others are quick to point out that a college or university is quite a different organizational model from that of industry or government, and hence, one cannot assume automatically that successful usage in business means success in higher education. (See section X on institutional change with material on organizational development.) Currently much literature is devoted to management by objectives (MBO), a phenomenon which parallels learning and teaching objectives. MBO involves procedures to make the goals and objectives of each main component of an organization explicit, set a timetable for their realization, and hold administrators accountable for

their achievements. Often sources simply discuss its applicability and how it has worked in business and industry. However, there are attempts to make this approach to management fit higher education. Robert Lahti (1973) outlines both the theory and procedures for implementing MBO in individual colleges using the continuous process of goal-setting based on institutuional purposes and priorities, assessing and rewarding goal-achievement, evaluating, and beginning the process again with restating goals. In addition, a program for developing managerial skills for academics who are inexperienced in specific techniques is set forth. MBO Goes to College, by Arthur Deegan and Roger Fritz (1975) is a workbook for faculty and administrators to see how management by objectives can work in an academic setting. They state their case in educational terminology with examples from higher education institutions where MBO is functioning.

Probably th issue most often presented in the literature on administrative development, is that of the lack of opportunities and the great need for them. Most administrators are in a bind with too much to do, too little time in which to do it, and too little money to take advantage of the opportunities which do exist for their own professional development, (Ryan, 1976). A variety of suggestions emerge on what should be offerred, how that should be determined, how to evaluate administrators, how to evaluate the existing administrative development programs, and simply what kind of help there is and where it is. Ryan advocates clearly defined competencies be set for successful administrators with a needs analysis done prior to developing administrative development programs for them. Moreover, he calls attention to the need for better planned, administered and evaluated activities perhaps with the establishment of a central clearinghouse for information about professional development opportunities so that additional programs might be provided which are complementary rather than duplications of others in existence. There is, however, the Guide to Professional Development Opportunities for College and University Administrators, published annually by the Office of Leadership Development in Higher Education of the American Council on Education which describes great numbers of professional development opportunities for widely diverse college and university administrators

(Galloway and Fisher, 1976) with a matrix and a full year calendar of all of these offerings. Other bibliographic and resource material is included in this packet.

Richard Richardson (1975) is concerned with not only programs of professional or staff development but with the context. He argues for a conceptual framework of organizational development within which to understand staff development, and presents a six-stage paradigm for defining and responding to staff needs. The interrelated stages include: (1) individual development theory, (2) individual development application, (3) study and revision of institutional structure, (4) establishing institutional goals and priorities, (5) attainment of individual goals, and (6) evaluation and maintainence. That institutional growth and change must be related to the development of administrators, is the thrust of this author, and the concern is echoed by others.

Evaluation of administrators is becoming a major issue in much the same way and for most of the same reasons as has faculty evaluation. Instruments are being developed to help facilitate this process such as Faculty Ratings of Department Chairperson/Head by the Office of Educational Resources, Kansas State University or Richard Miller's Administrative Effectiveness Appraisal form and his Performance Appraisal Report. Another need expressed in the literature is for more research and evaluation on the effectiveness of administrative development programs. William Feltner (1975) illustrates such an attempt in his article on the evaluation of a University of Georgia workshop on the administrative-team approach to college administration.

There are programs available for administrators who have the time, money and motivation to attend one of the many conferences or workshops available each year. The American Council on Education, Association of American Colleges, American Association for Higher Education, American Association of University Administrators, National Association of Student Personnel Administrators and other professional organizations all sponsor administrative development activities.

Individual colleges and universities also attempt to provide services such as Harvard University's Institute for Educational Management.

The literature on adminstrative development, then, suggests needs for: clearer role definitions for administrators, needs analyses done prior to program development, more uniform use of a central informational clearinghouse (such as that mentioned at ACE), better planning, administering and evaluating of development activities; improved ways of motivating administrators to recognize their professional needs, identification of characteristics of successful academic leadership, development of a national telecommunication network -- like NEXUS -- for professional development programs; new modes for delivery of critical information, use of good marketing concepts in program development; more regionalization of available activities; more skill- and techniques-oriented workshops; and perhaps even the formation of an academy of college and university management (Ryan, 1976).

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Describes experiences of three top management groups trying to fully develop the resources -- both human and technical -- of their organizations for maximal growth.

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Authors discuss need for improvements in management of colleges and universities, arguing that these institutions have responded too slowly to necessary management efforts. Suggests problem involves not enough management positions or managers, and that responsibility for this state of affairs rests in a variety of places including with trustees, organizational structure, and inappropriate administrative staffing.

Brann, J. and Emmet, T. A. (eds.) The Academic Department or Division Chairman: A Complex Role, Detroit: Balamp Publishing, 1972.
Higher education has not understood the need for in-service training of department and division "middle-managers". This series of short articles discusses innovation and change, roles of department and division chairpersons, reward systems, relationships between administrators and between administrators and faculty. An outgrowth of the Higher Education Executive Associates institutes and seminars during 1968-70, the book includes authors such as Wilbert McKeachie, Charles Monson, Jr., Calvin B. T. Lee, Harold Hodgkinson, Goodwin Watson.

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Argues that academic institutuions have leadership problems because they take a person out of the role of scholar-moralist-educator and make him an administrator. Believes this trend should be reversed, that academic leadership for the future ought to return to the former emphasis on scholarship and collegiality. Acknowledges need for some specific managerial and technical skills and competencies for success as an administrator today.

Clifford, E. W. "A New Testament," paper prepared for American Association for Higher Education annual conference, March 8, 1976, Buffalo, New York: American Association of University Administrators, 1976.
Given new conditions in higher education, changes in organization and leadership in colleges and universities must emerge. Articulates a multiple leadership model, such as in use at TWA, Sears Roebuck, ITT, in which, when applied to colleges, there could be three administrators collectively referred to as "office of the chairman". Each would be a generalist or "artist" and each would also be a specialist in financial, student, or academic affairs, for example. There would be a rotating chair of presidency in which each would serve a year for those occasions when one visible head of the college is necessary. Offers ideas on recruiting, recognizing and training administrative leaders.

*Corson, J. J. The Governance of Colleges and Universities, 2nd ed., New York: McGraw-Hill, 1975.
First published in 1969, this is a standard work on academic administration by an author who is both a trustee and a consultant in management.

Deegan, A. X., II and Fritz, R. G. MBO* Goes to College (*Management by Objectives), Boulder, Colorado: The Regents of the University of Colorado, University of Colorado, Division of Continuing Education, Bureau of Independent Study, 1975. For copies contact: Materials Manager, Center for Management and Technical Programs. Many in higher education comment that what colleges and universities need even more than money is good management. This workbook is intended to help college faculty and administrators see whether and how management by objectives can work. The case for MBO is stated in college terminology (not that of business and industry) with examples from universities where MBO is installed and functioning. Written in dialogue from, each unit in the workbook may be used for self-study or in group work. Detailed bibliography included.

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Book on all phases of evaluation from formulating objectives to recommending changes. Shows how improved teaching and learning can result from evaluation, how to pinpoint future needs, and how to provide rational and factual basis for decision-making. Full analysis of institutional self-study. Chapter on evaluation of administrators which emphasizes need for input on part of administrator into his/her own evaluation. Also chapter on faculty evaluation.

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Defines attributes of the effective executive, one who gets the right things accomplished, and identifies five habits, all of which can be learned, necessary for effectiveness.

*Drucker, P. F. The Practice of Management, New York: Harper and Row, 1954.
A classic in the field of management. Discusses knowledge and experience necessary for successful management and book serves as guide for aspiring and existing managers.

* These are basic works which would be particularly useful in beginning an inquiry.

Feltner, B. D. "Training Programs for College Administrators, Impact on Governance," Educational Record, Vol. 56., Summer, 1975, 156-9.
This article is one effort in an area of little research -- on the effectiveness of the many programs for training college administrators. Details the University of Georgia's Institute of Higher Education sponsored workshop, which emphasized the administrative team concept as an approach to college administration. Immediately after the workshop, and four years later, the administrators were queried about the administration of their colleges through using this approach. This article reports the results. Administrative team approach involves president and four or five major administrators sharing information and responsibility for decision making. Four years later the approach was still effective and working relationships of team members better than earlier.

*Galloway, S. W. and Fisher, C. F. A Guide to Professional Development Opportunities for College and University Administrators: Seminars, Workshops, Conferences and Internships, January-December, 1976, Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, Office of Leadership Development in Higher Education, 1976.
A compendium, published annually, which describes what actual programs and opportunities are available for administrative development. Categories include career planning and pre-service development, administrative role orientation and professional updating, organizational and personnel management, financial development, fund-raising and public relations: student affairs and services; facilities management and auxiliary services. Also prepared are a full year calendar and matrix of the planned offerings and an index of the sponsoring organizations for the workshops, seminars, conferences or internships, plus supplemental bibliographic and other resource material. The Office of Leadership Development in Higher Education sponsors some of the programs listed, but handbook is a guide to the variety of available development opportunities sponsored by many organizations.

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This report is based on interviews and questionnaire responses of several hundred academic deans in 49 states who had been identified as representative examples of effective leadership. Topics dealt with include duties and roles of deans, factors affecting the roles and responsibilities, relationships with others in the institution, opportunities for leadership, preparation for the academic deanship, and problems faced as a faculty leader and administrator, as well as problem resolution.

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A classic article using Herzberg's theory of motivating employees

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Highlights problems and difficulties faced when applying management by objectives and shows how to overcome them.

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A management consultant outlines his views on strengthening college management. Suggests clearer goal definition, greater consideration of alternatives, improved information systems, establishment of intensive training programs for college administrators, increased supply of manpower for middle-management positions, and improved resource allocation directly related to institutuional goals and appropriate priorities.

Kepner, C. H. and Tregue, B. B. The Rational Manager, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1965.
A classic systematic approach to improving managerial problem-solving and decision-making. Provides guidance for developing the critical managerial skill of asking the right questions at the right time.

*Knowles, A. S. (ed.) Handbook of College and University Administration, Vols. I and II, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970.
Offers broad and basic information on virtually any topic of function, operation or administration of colleges and universities imaginable. With 160 authors contributing, there are multiple views expressed on the major topics. A sampling of these topics includes general administration, nonacademic personnel administration, business and financial administration, academic affairs administration, learning resources--library and instructional resources, academic personnel administration.

Lahti, R. E. Innovative College Management, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1973.
A guide to the use of MBO often successfully used in business and industry, as an approach to management in higher education.

Both theory and implementation procedures in individual colleges are outlined within the contextual process of identifying goals, appraising, rewarding, and evaluating achievement toward them. Offers a program for developing managerial skills for academics who are inexperienced in specific management techniques.

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IX. FACULTY EVALUATION

by
Jerry G. Gaff

Confidence in traditional approaches to evaluation has eroded during recent years amid the reassessment by individual colleges and universities of their educational purposes, student clientele, and instructional programs. The growing use of systematic evaluation procedures to assess faculty performance is one manifestation of this pheonomenon as is the apparent acceptance of the "gentleman's B" to replace the old "C" among students. It is ironic that today many faculty members are being held to higher and more specific standards of performance than are their students.

The major thrust of the effort to evaluate faculty has been to assess their teaching effectiveness, largely because that seems to be the single most important aspect of the jobs of most faculty. The notion that students should play a major role in this evaluation, by rating their professors - a radical idea just five to ten years ago - has become commonplace these days.

However, most teaching evaluation procedures remain modest efforts. Most (a) rely on student descriptions of their teachers, (b) in a classroom, (c) for the duration of a term, (d) at the discretion of individual faculty members. This despite the fact that it is obvious that (a) students are but one constituency with a legitimate interest in and perspective on the quality of teaching, (b) the classroom is only one setting in which teaching and learning occur, (c) the important consequences of an education can be observed only over a long time span, and (d) acquisition of knowledge about the effects of one's teaching can help all teachers learn how to improve. The evaluation of faculty, particularly their teaching, remains a matter of controversy.

The work on faculty evaluation of teaching effectiveness by means of student ratings is advancing at three quite different levels, instrumentation, research on factors affecting evaluation, and use of results for instructional improvement or decision-making. Each of these

may be discussed briefly.

The search for the perfect rating form has become reminiscent of the search for the Holy Grail. Many investigators have sought to devise an instrument that is both reliable and related to criteria of effectiveness. Although it is becoming apparent that no single instrument will serve all the purposes of evaluation equally well, several good forms have been devised and are in widespread use. They include the ones developed by Aleamoni at Illinois, Centra at Educational Testing Service, Hoyt at Kansas State, McKeachie at Michigan, Seibert at Purdue, and Wilson at Berkeley. Although there are variations among each of these, all are technically sound and useful instruments.

A second area of concern has been to research the various factors that might affect the ratings of a professor or a course. There are many questions, even fears, that people have about evaluation, most of which are quite normal and understandable. There is enough scholarship that has been done in this area, however, to provide answers to some of the questions and to allay some of the fears. Several valuable summaries have been done which should be of use to educators; the ones by Kulik and McKeachie (1975) and by Cohen, Trent, and Rose (1973) are recent examples.

A few of the generalizations coming out of this research are the following: a) there is general agreement among students as to the effectiveness of their instructors; b) the judgments which students make about their teachers persist; although their views of an individual teacher may change, their ratings are generally similar to those made after they graduate; c) Student ratings are relatively independent of characteristics sometimes thought to be a source of bias, such as grade point average, sex, or course grade. Other generalizations are sprinkled throughout this literature.

One of the critical questions is the relationship of student evaluations to the amount of learning by students. Unfortunately, the evidence on this point is contradictory. In some studies reviewed there are positive correlations and in others there are negative

correlations. Although ideally one might evaluate the effectiveness of a teacher by measuring the amount of learning his students acquired, these contradictory findings and the methodological problems that stand in the way of deriving such clear conclusions make it unlikely that this ideal will be realized in the near future.

Even though their relationships with actual learning are not clear and additional research needs to be done on them, student evaluations can still serve important purposes. First, they can give students who are obviously affected by the behavior of their teachers a voice in determining the nature of that behavior. Second, faculty members may use the results of their evaluations to improve various aspects of their teaching. And finally, student ratings may well be used as one component of an overall evaluation procedure to assess faculty. (It should be remembered that there is no evidence that faculty or administrator judgments of a teacher's effectiveness are more highly correlated with student learning than are student's judgments.)

Even though we lack the perfect instrument and need to conduct additional research, the state of the evaluative art is sufficiently advanced that current practice can be improved. After all, most of the decisions one makes in life must be made with only incomplete knowledge, and on the basis of my own experience and impressions I will offer a few guidelines for improving the practice of evaluation.

1. A formal system of teaching evaluation should be established for all faculty members simply because it may provide the best available knowledge about the consequences of teaching, and because faculty members must obtain such knowledge if they are to improve their performance. In the end, a systematic procedure may be the best guarantee to faculty members that their interests are protected.
2. Although student ratings are better than less systematic attempts to learn of student reactions to teachers, and although the evidence indicates there is some overlap between student and faculty judgments, the student viewpoint is only one which needs to be considered. A more comprehensive teaching evaluation procedure which solicits appropriate inputs from students, the teacher himself, his teaching

colleagues, and administrators -- all of whom have legitimate interests in the quality of instruction -- would seem to be a more desirable procedure.

3. Evidence about the classroom performance of teachers is important but not sufficient. It is particularly important to learn about how faculty interact with students beyond the classroom, as advisors, and in the increasingly non-classroom settings where instruction occurs.
4. Rather than a "one-shot affair," teaching evaluations should be conducted on a continuous basis. A regular and continuous procedure can identify the degree of progress, stability, or even regression in performance and point the way for various actions which might assist each person to achieve to his/her fullest.
5. Although it is useful for faculty members to learn of the results of their own evaluations, it is more useful for them to learn about their own evaluation in comparison with the evaluations of others. Insofar as possible, teaching evaluation should be conducted on a comparative basis.
6. Some individuals may make incorrect interpretations of their assessments; some may not be sophisticated in reading such data, and for others their feelings may interfere with their understanding. For these reasons it is desirable to build in follow-up procedures in which the results of teaching evaluation may be discussed, interpreted, and implications for changes (if any) drawn with the teacher. Such discussion would obviously be a delicate matter, but they can help teachers make good use of the assessment data.
7. One of the stickiest issues regarding evaluation concerns the use to which the results are put. It seems to me that the most important use is for them to be linked together with a faculty development program. A full-fledged faculty development program should be designed to assist the development of individual faculty members to their fullest both professionally and personally. There ought to be a variety of resources available at an institution that may be used by faculty members to become more effective teachers. Teaching evaluations could be used to help identify areas which could be improved by means of the faculty development program.
8. The results of teaching evaluation ought to be used, also, to

make decisions about retention, promotion, and tenure. It is in the self-interest of the institution - indeed, of the entire professoriate - to retain, promote, and award tenure to those persons who are adjudged by the best available evidence to be effective teachers. This is especially true today when we have an abundance of applicants for each open position; unlike the days of a teacher shortage, there is little justification for rewarding ineffective teaching any more.

These practical steps, used in conjunction with the available instruments and based on existing research, offer promise of improving teaching and maintaining the vitality of an institution.

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X. INSTITUTIONAL CHANGE

by

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Literature in the area of change in higher education is voluminous, but much is vacuous. Most authors advocate the need for changes in colleges and universities, admonish faculty and administrators especially for not achieving more reforms, yet offer few adequate theories or strategies with which to realize their desires. Change seems to be the least value-laden term used to apply to the new, the novel, or innovative aspects of an institution and its programs and processes. Some prefer to suggest that institutions need renewal or reform or renovation, but, to say that institutions need to change seems to carry with it fewer assumptions about the quality of the past or expectations for the future, and as a simpler term will be used here.

It is obvious from the numerous essays presented in this Notebook and the references cited, that change is what is constant on campuses today. The clientele of institutions of higher learning has changed, and with this teaching methods, curriculum and course content, modes of learning, faculty and administrative roles and responsibilities, the financial picture, and the purposes of colleges. Parents, students, and university personnel alike are asking hard questions. What is the purpose of higher education in general terms and at a specific institution? What gives a university its centrality, coherence, community, and integrity? How confident may we be that an institution, will, in fact, deliver its goods as promised? Many individuals are thus faced with basic dilemmas vis-à-vis their institutions; they feel alienated, as if core decisions affecting them directly are out of their control; they do not understand how decisions are made; and often they do not see the relationship between lofty college catalogue or commencement statements of goals, ideals and purposes, and the day to day realities of institutional life. Change happens, but how and for what reasons?

Institutional change seems at first glance to be difficult to fathom, much as is the nature of creativity. Yet many who have examined creativity carefully have been able to reach some degree of concensus about this phenomenon. Creativity involves a product, which is recognized as being novel; a person, who is recognized as being innovative; and a process, which is seen as progressing in a somewhat recognizable pattern. Taken together, these parts, although the whole always equals more than the sum of its parts, may equate with the holistic notion of creativity. Similarly then, one might see change. There is usually some evidence that change has taken place -- a new program emerges, different attitudes are formed, personnel changes occur. There is, then, loosely construed, a product. Secondly, there are change agents, people whose aim it is to facilitate change, to reconceptualize ideas, to break down barriers; the persons who make it happen, compared in the analogy with the creative person. Finally, there are many processes of change, with strategies, techniques, and procedures for bringing it about; and with creativity there are periods of total immersion, periods of ideational dormancy -- putting it on the back burner for a while --, and "aha" experiences.

What then is being written about change in higher education? Some works look at individual or groups of colleges and universities and at their planned change efforts. JB Hefferlin, in Dynamics of Academic Reform, used data from 110 institutions to analyze both barriers to change and ways to overcome them, and suggests that change should be gradual and continual rather than the result always of upheavals and crises. Yet he found few dynamics of change around in the institutions studied. Warren Martin (1969) also found more conformity in values and standards than innovations or differences, and Dwight Ladd (1970) had a similar opinion after viewing 11 institutions. Though Ladd proposed ways to make the change process more effective, he found that current self-study efforts did not result in significant institutional changes, and he questions whether there ever will be many, if the established collegial process of study, analysis and discussion leading to decisions is followed.

Other authors do point out some significant planned changes being made in colleges and universities today. Jack Lindquist (in press) reports results of a multi-institutional project -- Strategies for Change and Utilization of Knowledge -- which worked with campus change teams to facilitate a broad range of educational reforms. In this major contribution to understanding institutional change, he states that in those successful educational change efforts with which he is familiar, the following processes seem to occur: "The stimulus of an external model and inter-institutional project, informed initiative by an internal leader, participative development led by faculty leaders who were both knowledgeable about that external model and respected internally, a governance structure which enabled these leaders to continue program development, a program structure with adequate staff, on-going support and protection in high places, and persistence over decades...." Sikes, Schlesinger, and Seashore (1974) integrate ideas about the process of change, organizational dynamics, and interpersonal relations in their discussion of campus change teams. Such team members not only are committed to recommending reforms, but to implementing them. Others have also written about some academic changes and strategies which were effective (Martorana and Kuhns, 1975; Richman and Farmer, 1975).

One strategy for change which seems to be emphasized in the literature is that of organizational development, referred to as OD. According to Ronald Boyer and Campbell Crockett (1973) organizational development is "...a planned change strategy emphasizing more effective utilization of the human resources of the organization." They comment that some view OD as a normative strategy to improve the collaborative or problem-solving capabilities of a system, while others see it as an educational process of continuously identifying, allocating, enlarging and enriching ways of using available resources or making them more available. For most, however, an OD specialist works with a client system, to define relationships, procedures and general change objectives, then utilizes a variety of appropriate techniques -- goal setting, leadership training, team building -- to achieve the desired outcomes. Usually such programs continue over a period of time, 2-5 years often, in order to institute and operationalize changes which will endure in large systems.

Though there are more comprehensive theories and practices of change today than a decade ago, Boyer and Campbell express some doubts that organizational development in higher education will parallel that of business and industry, because colleges and universities are different with respect to many systemic properties. They point out that universities tend to have more diverse goal structures, are more pluralistic in sub-systems, experience more difficulty in measuring the quality of their products, and are more influenced by and dependent upon their external environment (such as legislatures, foundations, alumni) for survival than are privately owned businesses. Furthermore, higher education institutions have not invested heavily in budgetary terms in self-renewal or in improving their organizational effectiveness. Such expenditure is more likely to be made in industry. In addition, personal and professional relationships are different in a university than in a business. In universities faculty members work as independent individuals rather than in an interdependent fashion. For these reasons, and others, one might be a bit wary of applying the management and organizational development techniques of business or industry in blanket-fashion within colleges and universities.

The decision-making process itself becomes a detailed area of inquiry in much of the bibliography, with considerable attention being given to collegial and bureaucratic models. The first is built on the idea that decisions should be made by a group of equals on the basis of reason, evidence, and debate. The bureaucratic model assumes a hierarchical process, in which decisions are made by formal authorities on the basis of official policies. Other models mentioned include coalition and pluralistic models, involving the "political" aspect of decisions (Baldridge, 1971) and the democratic model of involving a large number of people in the decision-making process. Lindquist (in press) argues that the best tactics include a proper mix of all three major norms -- hierarchical authority, reason and evidence, and democratic involvement. He comments that one can, in fact, use the best reason and evidence available, involve formal authorities in the process, and include many individuals and groups who feel they might be affected by the decision at hand. In addition, he, as do others, adds a fourth dimension, that of open collaboration.

There are changes in higher education, such as Hodgkinson describes in Institutions in Transition, occurring all over. Taking a long view, there is movement toward the public sector and away from private control of institutions, non-sectarian rather than sectarian control, expanded programs at institutions formerly devoted solely to teacher preparation, larger rather than smaller sized institutions, more coeducational institutions with fewer single-sex colleges, and more institutions awarding higher (M.A. or Ph. D.) degrees. There are changes, mentioned earlier, in composition of the student body and in program offerings. But by far, the greatest interest currently seen in the literature seems to be with structuring and organizing universities to be consonant with their basic institutional purposes and goals, devising decision-making systems which make implementation of these goals maximally effective and efficient, within a context of openness and involvement. Just as teachers are trying to individualize learning for their students, so institutions are attempting to utilize those modes of organization and decision-making which best fit their specific areas of interest and values. But to do so, one needs some knowledge of alternatives, and the motivation to change.

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